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郝英霞, 主任医师, 教授, 硕士研究生导师. 河北省保定市第一中心医院消化二科. 科研经历和科研专长: 消化身心疾病和胃食管反流病的诊治. 学术兼职: 中华医学会消化病学分会消化身心协作组委员; 中华消化身心联盟理事; 《世界华人消化杂志》编委; 河北省消化身心联盟副主任委员; 河北省医学会消化内镜学分会委员; 保定市医师协会消化医师分会主任委员; 保定市医学会消化病学分会副主任委员.

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主编

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COVER

Editorial Board Member of *World Chinese Journal of Digestology*, Hao Ying-Xia, Chief Physician, Department of Gastroenterology II, Baoding First Central Hospital, No. 320, Changcheng North Street, Lianchi District, Baoding 071300, Hebei Province, China

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急性胆源性胰腺炎肝损伤研究进展

高广周, 郝英霞

高广周, 郝英霞, 保定市第一中心医院消化二科 河北省保定市 071300

郝英霞, 主任医师, 主要从事消化身心疾病和肝胆胰疾病的研究。

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作者贡献分布: 本文主要由郝英霞指导; 由高广周撰写完成。

通讯作者: 郝英霞, 主任医师, 071300, 河北省保定市莲池区长城北大街320号, 保定市第一中心医院消化二科. haoyingxia3125@qq.com

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Progress in research of liver injury induced by acute biliary pancreatitis

Guang-Zhou Gao, Ying-Xia Hao

Guang-Zhou Gao, Ying-Xia Hao, Department of Gastroenterology (Division II), Baoding First Central Hospital, Baoding 071300, Hebei Province, China

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Corresponding author: Ying-Xia Hao, Chief Physician, Department of Gastroenterology (Division II), Baoding First Central Hospital, No. 320, Changcheng North Street, Lianchi District, Baoding 071300, Hebei Province, China. haoyingxia3125@qq.com

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Abstract

Acute biliary pancreatitis (ABP) not only causes acute inflammation of the pancreas, but also leads to obstruction or infection of the biliary system. Liver injury is one of the most common complications of ABP. The pathological mechanisms mainly include infection and

endotoxin, cholestasis, pancreatic enzyme damage, microcirculatory disorders, and oxidative stress, and the research conclusions are mostly derived from animal experiments. On the basis of routine medical treatment of ABP, active anti-infective treatment and rapid relief of biliary obstruction can promote the recovery of ABP-related liver injury.

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Key words: Acute biliary pancreatitis; Liver injury; Biliary obstruction; Biliary tract infection

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摘要

急性胆源性胰腺炎(acute biliary pancreatitis, ABP)不仅存在胰腺的急性炎症, 还往往合并胆道系统的梗阻或感染, 肝功能损伤是ABP最常见的并发症之一, 病理机制主要包括感染和内毒素、胆汁淤积、胰酶损伤、微循环障碍和氧化应激等, 其研究结论多来源于动物实验。在内科常规治疗ABP基础上, 积极抗感染治疗和尽快解除胆道梗阻能促进ABP相关肝损伤的恢复。

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关键词: 胆源性胰腺炎; 肝损伤; 胆道梗阻; 胆道感染

核心提要: 肝功能损伤是急性胆源性胰腺炎(acute biliary pancreatitis, ABP)最常见的并发症, 其发病机制有感染和内毒素损伤、胆汁淤积、胰酶损伤、微循环障碍和氧

化应激等, 内科常规治疗ABP的基础上, 尽快解除胆道梗阻、积极抗感染治疗能有效缓解病情, 迅速改善ABP相关肝损伤, 适时选用抗炎保肝药物也有助肝功能恢复。

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0 引言

急性胆源性胰腺炎(acute biliary pancreatitis, ABP)是指胆道系统结石、炎症或胆管结构异常所导致的急性胰腺炎(acute pancreatitis, AP). ABP是AP中最常见类型, 约占60%以上. ABP发病机制主要与结石活动有关: 结石沿胆道下行可导致胰胆管共同通道梗阻或胆石进入十二指肠致Oddi括约肌痉挛水肿, 致使胆汁和胰液排泄不畅, 逆流进入胰腺后使胰管压力增高, 导致胰腺腺泡损伤和胰酶提前激活, 最终引起胰腺自身消化, 发生胰腺炎^[1,2]. AP出现胰腺坏死和出血, 其释放的消化酶和坏死组织液通过血液循环和淋巴管途径进入全身, 引起多器官损害, 常并发肝、肺、肾、肠道等器官损伤及全身炎症反应综合征. 肝功能损伤是ABP最常见的并发症, 其发病机制有感染和内毒素损伤、胆汁淤积、胰酶损伤、微循环障碍和氧化应激等, 其研究结论多来源于动物实验. 本文就其病发病机制综述如下.

1 ABP肝损伤的临床特点

肝脏自身血供丰富, 且毗邻胰腺. AP发生时胰酶、炎性细胞因子和内毒素等可通过局部扩散或门静脉血流进入肝脏, 肝内Kupffer细胞被激活后产生大量的细胞因子, 后者释放入血进一步放大全身炎症反应, 使得肝脏不仅成为AP最主要的胰腺外受损靶器官, 也是全身炎症反应的放大器和加速器^[3]. ABP相关肝损害在组织学上可表现为肝细胞的变性坏死和肝小叶细胞内线粒体和溶酶体破坏, 多合并胆管扩张和胆汁淤积. 非胆源性AP并发肝损伤主要表现为肝细胞性黄疸, 血清胰酶、肝酶和胆红素水平较低, 且肝功能损伤出现时间相对较晚^[4], 而ABP多在发病24 h内出现以直接胆红素升高为主的梗阻性黄疸. 由于ABP的胆道梗阻多数为暂时性或不完全性, 其血清转氨酶和胆红素水平通常高于非胆源性胰腺炎所致肝损伤^[5], 其中丙氨酸氨基转移酶(alanine aminotransferase, ALT)至少升高3倍以上, 总胆红素水平多<256 μmol/L, 且常伴有碱性磷酸酶(alkaline phosphatase, ALP)和谷氨酰转肽酶增高, 在胆道梗阻解除后上述指标则会迅速下降^[6,7]. 需要指出的是, ABP患者肝功能损伤的程度, 尤其是转氨酶水平的高低与病情

程度无关^[8].

2 ABP肝损伤的发病机制

2.1 感染和内毒素 胆道系统通过十二指肠乳头与消化道相通, 当各种原因导致胆管梗阻时, 会出现细菌逆行性感染. 当胆总管内压>8 mmHg时, 胆总管壁静脉开放, 胆管内的细菌和内毒素可进入血液循环, 引发败血症及其他部位感染^[9,10]. ABP发生后机体处于高代谢及组织低灌注状态, 炎性细胞迁移至肝窦, 与活化的肝窦内皮细胞结合, 导致内皮细胞损伤和纤维素微血栓形成^[11], 以致肝窦闭塞, 供血供氧的减少引起肝细胞线粒体氧化磷酸化功能障碍, 干扰肝细胞能量代谢.

内毒素来源于革兰阴性菌胞壁外层的脂多糖(lipopolysaccharides, LPS). 胆道细菌感染或肠道菌群移位导致细菌迅速繁殖, 菌体死亡裂解后可释放大量的内毒素, 肝脏是清除内毒素的主要器官, 大量内毒素经溶酶体降解被肝细胞摄取后, 其线粒体的脂质过氧化反应增强, 氧化产物直接攻击肝细胞膜, 使膜的通透性增加, 破坏细胞膜完整性及酶的功能, 引起肝细胞能量代谢障碍^[12]. 肝内Kupffer细胞吞噬内毒素后可释放一系列花生四烯酸产物及细胞因子, 如肿瘤坏死因子(tumor necrosis factor-α, TNF-α)、白介素(interleukin, IL)、血栓素等, 形成级联瀑布反应, 上调Fas/FasL及其下游的P38-MAPK和caspase-3蛋白表达, 从而诱导DNA裂解和肝细胞凋亡^[13-15]. ABP患者起病时, 血清中IL-6、IL-18和TNF-α水平即出现异常, 且随着病情进展上述指标逐步升高^[16]. 在急性重症胰腺炎大鼠模型中, 酪氨酸磷酸化抑制剂AG490 则能通过JAK2/STAT3信号途径, 下调TNF-α、IL-6和IL-18表达而发挥抗炎作用, 能明显减轻肝损伤^[17]. 由于细胞因子间的复杂关联以及给药时机的等因素影响, 使用细胞因子拮抗剂(如TNF-α单克隆抗体)来治疗严重感染的患者, 其疗效均是让人失望的^[18].

2.2 胆汁淤积 生理情况下胆汁是无菌的, 富含分泌型IgA的胆汁酸盐随着胆汁进入肠道后可以抑制细菌生长, 胆汁酸盐能与细菌LPS结合形成难吸收的复合物或将LPS裂解为无毒的亚单位和聚合物. ABP多伴不同程度的胆道梗阻和胆汁淤积, 进入肠道的胆汁酸盐缺乏及分泌型IgA减少, 使肠道内细菌大量繁殖, 内毒素释放增多, 加之AP常合并有肠黏膜屏障功能障碍^[19], 黏附在肠黏膜上皮的细菌发生移位, 大量内毒素进入血循环, 产生严重的内毒素血症. 高胆红素血症还会损伤网状内皮系统功能, 肝脏Kupffer细胞吞噬活性被抑制, 但分泌功能异常亢进, 释放出过量TNF-α、IL-6等炎性因子, 其与内毒素协同作用于肝组织, 诱导可溶性一氧化氮合酶的合成^[20], 促进肝细胞产生大量NO, 破坏肝细胞线粒体DNA, 从而抑制线粒体呼吸链, 损伤肝脏细胞^[21].

正常肝脏75%血供来源于门静脉, 在ABP合并胆道梗阻时肝内外胆管扩张, 压迫门静脉分支, 使门静脉血流减少, 加之同时存在的门静脉-腔静脉分流使流经肝脏血液减少。Wakui等^[22]研究表明, 当胆管梗阻胆管内压上升时, 肝内动脉系统扩张, 血流量增加, 而门静脉血流量减少, 使得肝组织血流动力学紊乱, 出现缺血和乏氧, 加重肝损伤。

2.3 胰酶损伤 ABP所释放大量胰酶如弹性蛋白酶、胰蛋白酶、脂肪酶和溶血卵磷脂等, 可经过门静脉系统入肝直接造成肝损伤。其中胰弹性蛋白酶在肝脏损伤中扮演的角色最为重要, 也是研究的最为深入一类蛋白酶。胰弹性蛋白酶能诱导人体组织中最大的巨噬细胞群Kupffer细胞通过p38-MAPK途径介导激活产生TNF- α , 大量TNF- α 的合成直接导致肝细胞肿胀, 肝血窦微循环障碍, 反过来又可刺激Kupffer细胞产生氧自由基, 从而引起肝细胞的大量坏死^[23]。生长抑素及类似的多酶抑制剂可抑制胰酶, 保护肝脏的同时还可减轻AP相关的肺损伤^[24]。

2.4 微循环障碍 ABP多数合并胆道感染, 其所释放的多种炎性因子可导致肝、肾、肠道等重要脏器的微循环障碍。AP时炎症反应及内毒素等外界刺激使得一氧化氮合酶活性增强, 产生过量的NO, 后者可致使血管过度扩张, 使肝脏呈现低灌注状态, 发生微循环障碍, 加重缺血再灌注损伤^[25]。TNF- α 不仅可直接导致肝窦内皮细胞肿胀, 引起肝血窦微循环障碍, 还可以刺激IL-6等炎症因子的产生, 与之协同作用, 促进中性粒细胞向肝脏内皮细胞表面粘附, 释放弹力蛋白酶和氧自由基等有害物质, 使得微循环血流淤滞, 促发血管内凝血, 从而影响肝脏的血供, 造成肝细胞损害^[26]。Fg12凝血酶原酶可催化凝血酶原转变为凝血酶, 发生AP时其过度表达促进肝脏微血管原位血栓形成, 加重肝脏微循环障碍^[27], 连续应用低分子肝素则能够显著改善机体血流动力学, 改善组织的氧合和外周血供^[28]。

2.5 氧化应激 ABP的肝细胞中细胞色素P450介导产生大量的代谢性有毒物质, 破坏正常的氧化灭活途径, 导致大量的氧自由基被激活而加重肝细胞损伤。Abu-Hilal等^[29]研究发现在AP患者血细胞中的抗氧化剂超氧化物歧化酶(superoxide dismutase, SOD)含量显著下降, 而补充SOD类似物M40401能显著减轻脂质过氧化, 下调硝基酪氨酸、聚ADP核糖聚合酶表达水平, 减轻胰腺和其他重要脏器损伤^[30]。黏液溶解剂N-乙酰半胱氨酸具有清除氧自由基、减少细胞因子的合成和释放的作用, 急性胰腺炎大鼠模型中应用N-乙酰半胱氨酸, 其通过抑制NF- κ B的活性从而下调一氧化氮合酶mRNA的表达, 对AP并发的肝损伤具有保护作用^[31]。在AP动物模型胃内

灌注沙利度胺、羟苯磺酸钙也观察到类似的抗氧化应激、减轻肝损伤的效果^[32,33]。接受全胃肠外营养的急性胰腺炎患者, 静脉输注具有抗氧化作用的谷氨酰胺能降低死亡率和感染并发症^[34]。一项随机、双盲、安慰剂对照的研究则认为急性重症胰腺炎患者持续应用N-乙酰半胱氨酸或维生素C等抗氧化剂, 并没有改善患者器官功能障碍和预后^[35]。

3 ABP肝损伤的诊断和治疗

在ABP诊断标准中, 不仅需要腹部影像学检查发现胆道系统结石或胆道扩张证据, 肝功能异常也是重要的参考指标。ALT是ABP最好的预测指标, ALT升高至正常上限3倍, 其阳性预测值可达到95%^[6], 其血清浓度水平越高, 诊断ABP的特异性和阳性率越高。早期Fölsch等^[36]研究表明: 在腹部超声发现胆道系统结石基础上, 以下3项指标中: ALT>75 U/L、ALP>125 U/L、血清胆红素>40 μ mol/L, 其中有1项升高者即提示ABP可能, 二项均升高者要高度怀疑ABP可能。随着患者症状好转, 如ALT和AST水平快速下降, 则进一步支持ABP诊断^[8]。腹部CT不仅能评估胰腺炎症病情的轻重, 还能反映肝损伤的变化。ABP可出现肝实质细胞水肿、变性、坏死和组织灌注异常, 在CT表现为肝脏密度值减低, 当肝功能指标好转, 肝脏CT值也随之恢复正常, 可以与AP合并脂肪肝时CT表现相鉴别。

ABP多数合并胆道系统感染, 需要在常规治疗方案, 包括禁食、抑酸, 抑制胰酶分泌、抑制胰酶活性和液体复苏等基础上加用抗生素, 根据胆汁培养或血培养及药敏试验结果有针对性应用抗生素。抗感染治疗在杀灭胆道病原微生物同时, 能减少内毒素和炎症因子的生成和释放, 稳定肝脏血流动力学, 改善肝脏组织灌注。解除胆道系统梗阻仍是针对ABP病因的根本性治疗, 内镜下逆行胰胆管造影(endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography, ERCP)已成为ABP的一线治疗方法。国内外指南均推荐对出现黄疸或合并胆管炎的ABP患者应早期行ERCP^[37,38], 在引流胆汁、降低胰胆管压力同时能够迅速减轻胆管感染, 促进肝功能恢复。临床工作中针对肝功能异常也会经验性应用保肝药物, 常用的抗炎保肝药物包括抗炎类药物、细胞膜修复剂、解毒类和抗氧化类等^[39], 动物实验和临床试验观察到还原型谷胱甘肽^[40]、N-乙酰半胱氨酸^[31]、异甘草酸镁^[41,42]可有效抑制急性胰腺炎NF- κ B信号通路, 减轻氧化应激和炎症反应, 降低转氨酶和胆红素水平(图1)。需要指出的是, 药物治疗ABP相关肝损伤治疗的报道较少, 且主要以动物实验为主, 还需要进一步的临床研究来指导保肝药的选择与应用。

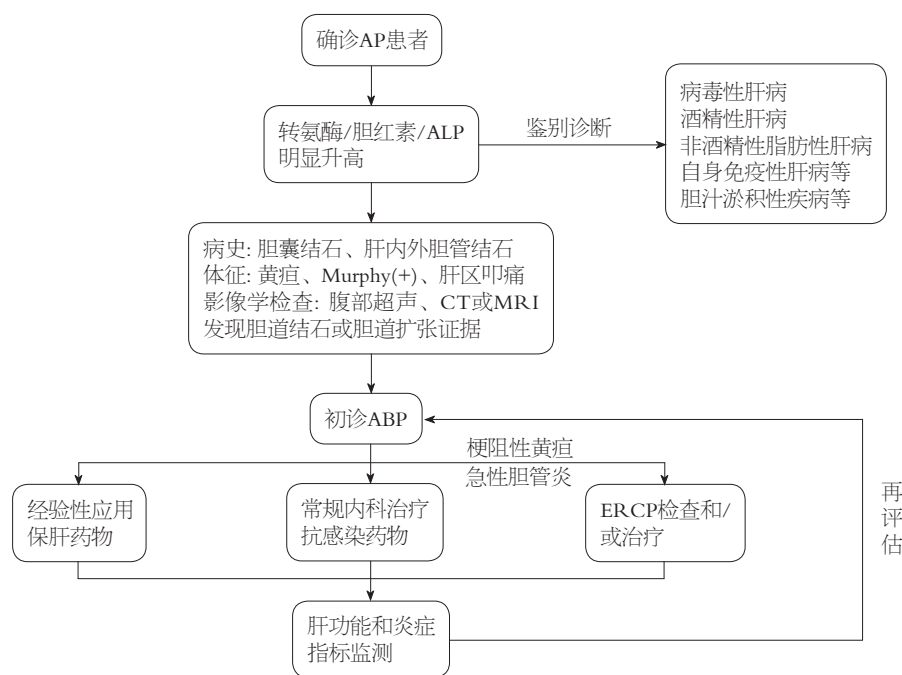


图1 胆源性胰腺炎肝损伤诊治流程。

4 结论

ABP相关肝损伤是多因素共同参与的过程, 在胆道梗阻和感染基础上各种细胞因子、炎症介质、信号通路间相互协同, 加重了肝脏损伤。随着肝脏对代谢产物和炎症因子清除能力下降, 大量致病因子进入体循环, 对全身多器官造成广泛损害, 成为多器官功能衰竭的重要诱因。在内科常规治疗ABP的基础上, 尽快解除胆道梗阻、积极抗感染治疗能有效缓解病情, 迅速改善ABP相关肝损伤, 适时选用抗炎保肝药物也有助肝功能恢复。

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